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Preparedness to teach : a comparison between consecutive and concurrent education students

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PREPAREDNESS TO TEACH: A COMPARISON BETWEEN CONSECUTIVE AND CONCURRENT EDUCATION STUDENTS

by

Xiaobin Li ©

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to examine the differences between consecutive and concurrent preservice education students concerning both their feelings of preparedness to teach and the classroom management and discipline problems experienced. It also explored the relationship between students' feelings of preparedness to teach and the classroom management problems they encounter during their practicum.

This research is essentially exploratory in nature due to a paucity of literature regarding the differences between the consecutive and concurrent education students.

Data obtained through the use of the "Student Teachers' Feelings of Preparedness to Teach" scale and the Haines Inventory were analysed.

The results of the research reveal that the combined effects of classroom instruction and practicum are sufficient to enable students enrolled in a consecutive program to develop feelings of preparedness to teach equivalent to those

of the concurrent students. The results also suggest that there is no significant difference in the number of classroom management problems encountered by the two groups during their practicum. In addition, a low positive correlation was found between the feelings of preparedness to teach score and the total score on the classroom management and discipline problem inventory. The study supports Bandura's (1986) theory that self-efficacy grows out of the reciprocal relationships between the individual's pre-dispositions, his or her behaviour, and the environment in which the behaviour occurs.

Chapter I

Introduction

Our society is changing faster and faster. It is becoming more complex, diverse, and multifaceted. As society changes, teachers experience greater pressure to change their practices accordingly. In efforts to reform Ontario's education system to keep up with the changing society, there are recommendations to transform schools, and "transforming schools, ... ultimately depends on teachers" (Bégin, Caplan, Bharti, Glaze & Murphy, 1994, p. 14). Likewise, teacher educators must consider appropriate alterations in training future teachers. Our schools require teachers who are able to respond to day-to-day challenges in a manner that -- consistent with our best knowledge -- is compassionate, child-centred, ethical, and informed.

Teacher educators have been seeking more appropriate and effective ways to prepare teachers. In efforts to reach this

goal, considerable attention has been focused on how well prepared newly trained teachers are when they begin teaching in elementary and secondary schools (Covert, Williams, & Kennedy, 1991; Housego, 1994; Reynolds, 1992). This concern naturally leads to the considerations of how education students are prepared in faculties of education, and to research intended to inform and improve various teacher training programs.

Statement of the Problem

There has been an abundance of research concerning diverse characteristics of different teacher training programs (Andrews & Wheeler, 1990; Bloodsworth, 1994; Grossman, 1991; Tom & Valli, 1990; Yon & Passe, 1990). Research on Canadian teacher education is also plentiful (Castle, 1991; Housego, 1994; Wideen & Holborn, 1986). Despite their various organizational arrangements, most Canadian programs have one of two enrolment paths: consecutive or concurrent. In a consecutive program, after obtaining a Bachelor of Arts or

Bachelor of Science degree or its equivalent, students study at a faculty of education in a one-year (or two-year, depending on the province) program to receive their Bachelor of Education degree. In a concurrent program, students studying for a Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science degree at a university simultaneously complete the requirements for a Bachelor of Education degree, usually over a four-year period.

A second common feature of Canadian teacher training programs is the inclusion of a practicum. "All Canadian programs include some form of practicum" (Wideen & Holborn, 1986, p. 562), and researchers in this area report findings that "corroborate the continued importance of the practicum in Canadian programs" (Castle, 1991, p. 1). The success of the field experiences is important to the development of education students' feelings of preparedness to teach (Housego, 1990b).

At the University of British Columbia, Housego has focused her research on how well education students feel prepared to teach during various stages of their training

programs (Housego, 1990a, 1990b, 1992a, 1992b). Feelings of teaching efficacy or preparedness to teach are conceptions that student teachers have indicated about how well-prepared they are to perform a set of tasks central to teaching and applicable across grade levels and subject matter fields (Housego, 1990a).

The theory underlying Housego's work on student teachers' self-efficacy is Bandura's reciprocal determinism (Bandura, 1978). Housego (1990a) argues that "reciprocal determinism provides a richer, more complex and yet more plausible explanation of human behaviour than either the simpler view that behaviour is determined jointly by the personal characteristics of the individual and his or her environment, or the view that it is determined by the effect of the interaction between personal factors and the environment" (p.39). Reciprocal determinism explains events:

> ...in which each of three components, behaviour, internal personal factors, and environmental conditions plays a role in determining each of the others. Behaviour is

jointly determined by one's personal characteristics and one's environment; one's personal characteristics are shaped in relation to one's behaviour patterns and environmental conditions, and, in turn, environmental conditions are modified by both one's behaviour and one's personal dispositions. (Housego, 1990a, p. 39)

"A reciprocal deterministic framework," Housego (1990a, p. 39) contends, "allows us to reflect on the complex relationships among teaching behaviours, a teacher's personal dispositions -- of which feeling prepared would be one -- and the educational environment in which the teacher works". She illustrates this further with an educational example:

B (a teacher's behaviour towards students) is a product of P (her or his established personality characteristics) and of E (environmental factors). Examples of E would include school organizational patterns, the characteristics and size of her or his class, and perhaps wider community influences. At the same time, P (for instance, her or his good will, cheerfulness or feelings

of being able to succeed) is affected by E and by B(ongoing behaviours that contribute to long-lasting personal dispositions). Finally, E (the school environment, perhaps its structures or businesslike operation) is altered by P (the personal disposition of the teacher) and by B. (Housego, 1990a, p. 39)

Applying Bandura's theory to teaching, Housego (1990a, 1990b, 1992b) explored the basis for and development of feelings of preparedness to teach in preservice teachers. Housego designed the "Student Teachers' Feelings of Preparedness for Teaching" (PREP) scale (see Appendix D) to investigate these feelings (1990a). The PREP scale measures the degree to which student teachers feel prepared to perform a set of tasks central to teaching and applicable across grade levels and subject matter fields. It has 50 items. Each item is stated so as to complete the sentence, "I feel prepared to ..." and is accompanied by a 7-point Likert scale, from "almost completely unprepared (1)" to "almost completely prepared (7)". The higher the total score is, the more

prepared to teach the student teacher feels. The PREP scale measures several dimensions of student teachers' feelings of preparedness to teach, such as lesson planning, communicating with pupils, and classroom management.

The results of Housego's research are summarised in Table 1. In Table 1, Housego's findings are divided into 3 levels: theory/practice, program group, and subgroup. The theory/practice level distinguishes students' theoretical and conceptual knowledge acquired in class and the application of this knowledge during the practicum. The program group level refers to the results Housego obtained from comparing different program groups, for example, old and new programs, elementary and secondary programs. The subgroup level refers to the results she obtained from comparing different subgroups within program groups. These represent groups in the secondary program differentiated according to teaching subjects -- mathematics, English, art, and physical education. At the elementary level, subgroups were formed according to teaching

Table 1
Program Features and Effects

Study	*Theory/Practice*	*Program Group*	*Subgroup*
1990a	class/field +	1 year post-degree +	Math, English, art, phys.ed., multcultural ed., community ed., regular +
1990b	class +/-	new elementary +/-	Special ed., French ed., no specialization + Multicultural ed. -
		new secondary +/-	Math, phys.ed. + English, art -
1992a	class/field +	new elementary +	No specialization, special ed. French ed. + Multicultural ed. -
1992b	class/field + field +	new secondary +	Math, English, art, phys.ed. +

Note 1: + increases in PREP scores; - no change or decreases; +/- mixed.
Based upon studies conducted by Housego (1990a, 1990b, 1992a, & 1992b).

specializations such as special education, French education, multicultural education and no specialization.

Program. As may be seen in Table 1, Housego explored differences in PREP scores between various groups of education students, specifically, between students enrolled in the old and the new programs and those enrolled in secondary and elementary programs at the University of British Columbia. At this level, positive effects were found for those programs of one or two years duration. Generally inconsistent findings were found, however, for elementary and secondary programs when assessed after one term. A lack of consistent gains in PREP scores among students after one term of classroom instruction may have reflected either the duration of the program or the absence of the practicum experience. A single term may not be of sufficient duration to influence students' responses to the PREP Scale. It also is possible that changes in efficacy beliefs may require a field experience as well as classroom instruction.

Practicum. When Housego tested the effects of combined course work and practicum -- over a full year period -- the results were consistent and positive. According to Housego (1990a), the practicum is central in developing preservice teachers' feelings of preparedness to teach.

Researchers believe that classroom management is one of the important aspects of teaching that education students should learn and practice in their coursework and practica (Covert, Williams & Kennedy, 1991; Haines, 1990). Management and control were often student teachers' most immediate concerns in the practicum (Hodges, 1982). In assessing the occurrence of classroom discipline problems during student teaching, Haines (1990) designed an inventory to investigate the degree to which each problem occurred (see Appendix E). The source of the items in the Haines Inventory was a study done by Daisy Reed (1989) who developed a typology of the most serious discipline problems experienced by student teachers at an American university.

Summary. Housego's results suggest the effects of preservice instruction -- at least at the program level -- are consistent and positive. Comparisons of the changes in PREP scores obtained by individuals enrolled in elementary or secondary, or old and new programs accommodate initial differences among the students enrolled in various programs. There are, however, inherent difficulties in using difference scores in comparative analysis (Cronbach and Furby, 1970). Addressing questions of practical and policy interest involve comparisons between programs that differ in the investment of time and effort required of the institution and the individual student.

Membership in the concurrent and consecutive teacher-training programs is marked by the different experiences students bring to these programs. Concurrent students have classroom experiences as well as educational instruction before their final year. The consecutive student have few such formal experiences when they enter a teacher preparation program. The defining characteristics of concurrent students

then is the extent and nature of their prior formal educational experiences. The duration of the concurrent program is considerably longer than the consecutive program. The effects of program duration may be assessed through a comparison of PREP scores obtained from students enrolled in these two programs.

The relative importance of the field experience in the formation of a sense of self-efficacy in student teachers needs further examination, and specifically, the independent effects of classroom instruction and the combined effects of practicum and classroom instruction need to be investigated. These too can be examined within the framework of a concurrent-consecutive comparison conducted across a term that incorporates classroom instruction and a practicum.

Finally, the relationship between an independent indicator of teaching performance and student teachers' feelings of preparedness to teach is needed to better understand the link between efficacy and performance. An examination of the degree of correspondence between the Haines

Inventory and PREP scores obtained at the conclusion of a term will provide evidence for such a relationship.

Purpose of the Study

As mentioned above, there is a need to extend at least two aspects of Housego's work. The first deals with the relationship between program features and feelings of preparedness to teach; the second examines the relationship between students' practica and their feelings of preparedness to teach.

Program. The Faculty of Education in Lakehead University, Thunder Bay, Ontario, offers two kinds of Bachelor of Education teaching certification programs: a concurrent program and a consecutive program. In the former, students studying for a Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science degree at Lakehead University simultaneously complete the requirements for a Bachelor of Education degree. In the consecutive program, after completing a Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science degree, students obtain a Bachelor of Education degree at the Faculty of Education in a one-year

program. Similarly structured programs exist in many North American universities.

In 1974, the Teacher Education Committee of the Ontario Public School Men Teachers' Federation published a position paper on teacher education, stating that the Federation endorsed a four-year concurrent program as preferable (Simmons et al., 1974). It seems, however, that more research is needed to discover the advantages and disadvantages of consecutive and concurrent teacher education programs in preparing students to teach.

One difference between concurrent and consecutive students is that the consecutive students are often older than the concurrent students. With regard to basic academic competence, the requirements for admission for consecutive and concurrent education students are different. In a consecutive program (B.A. or B.Sc., then B.Ed.) it is expected that a candidate have at least a B.A. or B.Sc. or its equivalent to be considered for admission. In a concurrent program (B.Ed., and B.A. or B.Sc.) it is assumed that

candidates have achieved sufficiently high marks on their high school courses to qualify them to enter the program.

At Lakehead University, 2134 people applied for admission into the 1995-1996 consecutive B.Ed. Program. A strong B average plus appropriate applicable university courses were required. Four hundred and seventeen applicants were offered admissions. The rate of offers of admission over applications was approximately 20%. Four hundred and thirty people applied for admission into the 1992-1996 B.A./B.Ed. concurrent program. An average high school mark of 80-85% was required. Two hundred and ten applicants were offered admissions, with an acceptance rate of approximately 49%. There were 67 applicants for the 1992-1996 B.Sc./B.Ed. concurrent program. The requirement for admission was an average high school mark of 70-72%. Forty-four admissions were offered, with an acceptance rate of approximately 66%.

It is expected that there would be differences in conceptions concerning preparedness to teach between the consecutive students and the concurrent students at the

beginning of the final year of the teacher education programs at the Faculty of Education, Lakehead University. This derives primarily from differences in the time that concurrent and consecutive students spend in schools observing and participating in practice teaching. The concurrent students spend half a day every week for 20 weeks in a school, plus nine full days of student teaching in their third year at Lakehead University. In the fourth year, they have an orientation and two four-week practica, one at the end of the fall term and the other at the end of the winter term. The consecutive students have an orientation and an identical practica experience during their one-year B.Ed. program.

The initial objective of this study was to explore, during the first half of their final year of teacher preparation, differences between these two groups of preservice teachers regarding their feelings of preparedness to teach. These feelings were compared at three different times during the first term of the 1995-1996 academic year. Assessing group differences in efficacy beliefs with the

Housego PREP instrument over the course of the first term would provide a view of the effects of classroom instruction and practicum components of the preservice program. The study also addressed the duration of program issue by comparing the concurrent students whose preservice experience was distributed over a two-year period with that of the consecutive students whose training program was more intensive and compressed.

Practicum. The study focused as well on the practicum because Housego (1990a, 1990b, 1992a, 1992b, 1994) sees it as an important element in the preservice experiences and because it is a key component in the development of students' feelings of preparedness to teach.

While measuring student teachers' feelings of preparedness to teach, Housego (1990a) found that the increases in some aspects of this dimension -- classroom management, and instructional planning -- were greater than in others. Researchers believe that classroom management is one of the most important aspects of teaching that students should

learn and practise in their coursework and practica (Covert, Williams & Kennedy, 1991; Haines, 1990; Housego, 1990a, 1990b, 1992a, 1992b, 1994; Reynolds, 1992).

In their study of critical incidents in the supervision of student teaching, Housego and Boldt (1985) discovered that 49 percent of the total number of incidents have to do with classroom organization and management. Management and control were often student teachers' most immediate concerns (Hodges, 1982). A second purpose of the study is to investigate then, -- at the third assessment time -- the frequency of occurrence of a variety of classroom discipline problems encountered during the first four-week student teaching block at the end of the fall term (see Appendix A, Faculty of Education calendar for 1995-1996). The Haines Inventory, used for this purpose, has 17 classroom discipline problems, of which each is used as the subject of a sentence completed by "... was a serious problem during my teaching experience." Examples of typical behaviours are provided to clarify each problem. Student teachers are requested to indicate their experiences.

In achieving the objectives of the study, the following questions are posed:

Part one

1. Are there differences in initial PREP scores between consecutive and concurrent students?
2. Are any initial PREP score differences maintained after the classroom instruction portion of the preservice programs?
3. Are any initial PREP score differences maintained after the practicum portion of the preservice programs?

Part two

4. Do consecutive and concurrent students differ in the number of classroom management problems encountered during the practicum?
5. Are the problems reported on the Haines Inventory related to total PREP scores?

Significance

Theoretical. According to Bandura (1978), self-efficacy is a personal characteristic which grows out of the reciprocal relationships between the individual's pre-dispositions, his or her behaviour, and the environment in which the behaviour occurs. In the context of teacher education, student teachers might be expected to derive self-efficacy feelings regarding teaching from successful teacher education experiences both in class and in their field experiences. It is important to better understand how these self-efficacy feelings regarding teaching develop in students enrolled in instructional environments with different features such as found in the concurrent - consecutive program distinction.

Methodological. Education students' feelings of preparedness to teach may be assumed to be positively associated with their performance in the classroom. The study examined management experiences of students while on their practicum and their reported feelings of preparedness to

teach. This assessed the validity of the Housego instrument in relation to the detailed inventory developed by Haines (1990).

Practical. A knowledge of how education students' feelings of preparedness to teach develop is very important in comprehending how teacher training programs in faculties or colleges of education work (Housego, 1994). Teacher educators may gain insights as to where they can change and possibly improve a teacher education program through a better understanding of the link between feelings of preparedness to teach and the program components of classroom instruction and field experiences.

Definition of Terms

Feelings of preparedness to teach. According to Housego (1990a), feelings of preparedness to teach are a set of self-perceptions that education students have related to the performance of a group of tasks central to teaching and applicable across grade levels and subject matter fields.

Concurrent education student. A concurrent education student in this study is a student who is in her or his fourth

and final university year working towards the culmination of a Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science degree and a Bachelor of Education degree simultaneously.

Consecutive education student. A consecutive education student in this study is a student who has obtained a Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science degree, or its equivalent, and is completing a Bachelor of Education degree in a one-year teacher education program.

Practicum. The definition of practicum in *Webster's Third New International Dictionary* is, "a unit of work done by an advanced university student that involves practical application of previously studied theory and the collection of data for future theoretical interpretation (as in practice teaching)". In this study, practicum refers to practice teaching.

Classroom management. According to Doyle (1986), "classroom management refers to the actions and strategies teachers use to solve the problem of order in classroom" (p. 397).

Chapter II

Literature Review

In this chapter, several concepts and issues concerning teacher education are addressed. These include the advantages and disadvantages of consecutive and concurrent programs, preconceptions education students have when they enter a teacher preparation program, and students' feelings of preparedness to teach. In addition, the effect of courses, particularly methods courses and practicum experiences, on teacher preparation is reviewed. Classroom management, and its importance in teaching, is explored. These issues are related to the major concerns of the present study: the relationship between program features and feelings of preparedness to teach; the relationship between practicum and feelings of preparedness to teach; and the relationship between feelings of preparedness to teach and classroom management problems experienced.

Concurrent and Consecutive Students

Generally speaking, teacher educators in Canada "recognize two types of programs: the concurrent and the consecutive" (Smitheram & Hillis, 1974, p. 60). In a concurrent program, students studying for a Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science degree at a university simultaneously complete the requirements for a Bachelor of Education degree. In Ontario, four years of university are required to complete the program. Concurrent program education students usually come directly from high schools.

In a consecutive program in Ontario, after earning a degree, students study at a faculty of education in a one-year program to receive their Bachelor of Education degree. Consecutive program education students come from different walks of life and hold bachelor's or even master's degrees. These people bring a greater variety of experiences to a faculty of education, when contrasted with the concurrent students who have all attended the same university for three years.

Over twenty years ago, the concurrent program did not enjoy much popularity in Ontario. This may have been based on "a belief that academic courses are in some way contaminated by the mingling" (Smitheram and Hillis, 1974, p. 60). However, many public school male teachers in Ontario at that time preferred graduates from concurrent programs as their new colleagues (Simmons et al., 1974).

According to Smitheram (1971), the concurrent program was the most desirable for the preparation of teachers. He pointed out the advantages of a concurrent program in the following:

> The student has the time to be introduced gradually to the schools and to acquire some confidence in the school situation. The student is not faced with the rather sudden pressures attendant upon entering a program one September, with the knowledge that he has to face a class the following September. This provision for reflective thought about the profession is essential, and only the concurrent program presently provides the time. (p. 41)

Smitheram and Hillis (1974) maintained that the consecutive program is traditionally embedded in Canadian education because it provides "a means of converting a liberal arts education into professional teacher preparation by the addition of roughly one year of further study" (p. 60). They explained further:

> It is argued that the attraction of the consecutive program, other than its speed and its separation from academic study, is that it enables student teachers to take all their courses in the education faculty so they can engage in practice teaching without interrupting their academic course work. This is the only way that they can have any long exposure in the schools if the university does not operate on a semester system. Also, the program provides for the entry of latecomers to the profession. (p. 61)

However, Smitheram and Hillis (1974) expressed two concerns: (1) "no other profession feels the need to accommodate latecomers in this way, if teaching is as complex

and children are as sensitive as research leads us to believe"; and (2) "it is absurd to assume that teachers can be adequately trained for their profession over such a short period" (p. 61).

"While the province was experiencing a shortage of qualified teachers", Smitheram and Hillis (1974) further argued, "some scheme was needed for quickly converting any college graduate into a teacher, and this (consecutive) system served its purpose well. But conditions have changed, so that today the program is an anachronism" (p. 61). To conclude, Smitheram and Hillis stated that "on balance, we cannot find any justification for the continued offering of consecutive programs" (p. 61).

Yet, today, consecutive programs are still offered in faculties of education in Ontario. According to a study for the Ontario Ministry of Education and Training, "approximately 85 per cent of the 1990-1991 teacher education students attended one-year consecutive programs and 15 per cent were in the final year of a concurrent program" (Smith, Herry,

Levesque & Marshall, 1993, p. 62). Furthermore, "most provinces have some form of one-year (or one-year equivalent) program in which education courses are interspersed with one or more short practice teaching periods" (Wideen & Holborn, 1986, p. 559). There is a paucity of literature concerning the differences between concurrent and consecutive education programs in Canada.

Preconceptions

To understand education students' feelings of preparedness to teach, a knowledge of the preconceptions they have when they enter a teacher preparation program would be valuable. People have knowledge, attitudes and beliefs that are deeply rooted in their own experiences. These prior experiences and related knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs will influence the way they experience, perceive and interpret events (Kelly, 1955; Perry, 1970). Educational psychologists have found that novices bring preconceptions to every learning situation, and that these previous beliefs serve as filters

and building blocks of new knowledge (Posner, Strike, Hewson & Bertzog, 1982). In the case of students in teacher education programs, their naive conceptions and misunderstandings acquired through earlier experiences play an important role in the acquisition of new knowledge (Eaton, Anderson & Smith, 1984; Wittrock, 1986).

Education students' knowledge, attitudes and beliefs about teaching are formulated prior to entering a teacher preparation program. These conceptions are formed by experiences as elementary and secondary school students (Lasley, 1991; Lortie, 1975), by the influence of stereotyped examples shown in mass media (Andrews, Balfour & Stitch, 1995; Lasley, 1980), and possibly by their own teaching related experiences (Herman, 1985).

These conceptions often have narrow perspectives. According to Grossman (1991), the beliefs obtained in elementary and secondary school years have at least three limitations. Firstly, students only have access to teachers' actions, not their thought processes. Students "are not privy

to the teacher's private intentions and personal reflections on classroom events. Students rarely participate in selecting goals, making preparations, or post mortem analyses. Thus they are not pressed to place the teacher's actions in a pedagogically oriented framework" (Grossman, 1991, p. 349).

The second limitation is the diversity of past classroom experiences. This limitation is that recollections of the same general activity may produce distinctly different understandings of what the activity concerns, because students have watched different performances.

The third is the tendency of prospective teachers to use themselves as implicit models for the students they will encounter, as explained by Grossman (1991) in the following passage:

> Prospective teachers recall their own academic interests and abilities to inform their judgments of the interest level or difficulty of academic tasks they plan to assign to students. In using themselves as models, teachers often express surprise when their students complain over

the difficulty of a task they remember as being relatively easy. (pp. 349-350)

Regarding the stereotyped examples of teachers in mass media, they are usually either overstated or understated (Bégin et al., 1994; Larson, Whitworth, Ferguson & Collins, 1986). Teaching related experiences are limited in most cases, lacking the variety of the regular duties a teacher performs (Kelly & Kelly, 1983).

These implicit preconceptions are usually quite stable and often show a remarkable resistance against attempts to change them (Wubbels, 1992). One of the important conceptions education students have is the idea about competent teaching that they have witnessed as elementary and secondary school students (Housego, 1990b; Lortie, 1975; Weinstein, 1988). Some prospective teachers believe teaching is a matter of telling (Barnes, 1989). Many education students are confident that they will be good teachers themselves after they complete a teacher preparation program and have had enough practice in teaching (Housego, 1992).

Another conception is that teaching continues to be viewed as an attractive occupation among a growing number of students who enter teacher education programs for various reasons. This view is maintained despite the fact that the demand for qualified elementary and secondary school teachers has drastically declined in Canada (Allison, 1982, 1984) and the "employment prospects for graduates" of faculties of education "remain bleak if not dismal" (Pickard, 1995, p. 9).

These tacit and often simplistic preconceptions are rarely confronted in teacher education programs (Barnes, 1989). Teacher preparation programs that do not address students' beliefs and attitudes about teaching may not turn out reflective and innovative teachers (Barnes, 1989). Too often, in considering what student teachers need to know, teacher educators have failed to consider what prospective teachers think they already know (Barnes, 1989). Furthermore, "field experiences are rarely designed to challenge prospective teachers' underlying beliefs about teaching and learning" (McDiarmid, 1990, p. 12).

Literature cited and discussed above does not specifically mention concurrent or consecutive education students.

Preparedness to Teach

Two measurement instruments have been established to investigate how well education students believe that they are prepared to teach before they really start teaching in elementary or secondary schools.

The "Student Teachers' Feelings of Preparedness to Teach Scale" (PREP Scale, see Appendix C) has been designed to monitor and assess how education students' feelings of preparedness to teach develop. This scale was designed in 1986 by B. E. Housego, of the University of British Columbia, to measure the degree to which student teachers felt prepared to perform a set of tasks central to teaching and applicable across grade levels and subject matter fields (1990a). She has developed and refined the scale, conducted research with it, and published at least five articles about it or about the

studies where the scale was used (Housego, 1990a, 1990b, 1992a, 1992b, 1994).

During the 1986-1987 academic year students enrolled in the one-year post-baccalaureate teacher education program in the Faculty of Education at the University of British Columbia participated in the study conducted by Housego (1990a), where the PREP Scale was used for the first time. Housego and her research assistants administered the Scale in October, January and March, just prior to each of three distributed practica. She found that student teachers' feelings of preparedness to teach grew continuously during their teacher education year. Housego also found that increases in some aspects -- classroom management and instructional planning -- were greater than in others -- questioning, motivation, record-keeping, and promotion of self-discipline. Finally, the increases of feelings of preparedness to teach of various subgroups of student teachers were different.

Housego (1990a) suggested more research on the relationships among feelings of preparedness to teach and

actual teaching behaviours. She also suggested that investigation might be needed to study the "greater initial feelings of preparedness to teach of some subgroups of student teachers and the lack of significant increases in feelings of preparedness to teach of others" (Housego, 1990a, p. 54).

In the first term of new teacher education programs, September to December 1987, Housego (1990b) used the PREP Scale again to compare the results of this study with those of the previous one. She discovered that student teachers' feelings of preparedness to teach increased significantly during the first term of both new and old programs. However, at the end of the first term, new program students' feelings of preparedness to teach were significantly greater than those of old program students at a comparable point in their program.

Housego (1992a) also used the PREP Scale during the first offering of an elementary teacher education program at UBC (1987-1989) to assess student teachers' feelings of preparedness to teach. Total group feelings increased

significantly in every term except the last, but increases did not occur for all subgroups. Male students' feelings did not increase significantly during any term. At the end of every term except the first, female students felt significantly more prepared to teach than males. Feelings of preparedness to teach did not increase significantly in any term for one other subgroup, multicultural education students.

The fourth use of the PREP scale involved the second offering of the revised University of British Columbia secondary teacher education program, 1988-1989. Student teachers' feelings of preparedness were monitored, term by term, for the total group and subject specialization and gender subgroups (Housego, 1992b). Total group and all subgroup PREP mean scores increased significantly in first term. In second term total group mean PREP scores increased significantly. In third term mean PREP scores did not increase significantly. All four subject specialization subgroup PREP Scale mean scores increased significantly in first term. However, only two increased significantly in second term, and

none increased significantly in third term. "Both male and female PREP Scale mean scores increased in terms one and two but not three" (Housego, 1992b, p. 49).

During the 1991-1992 school year, Housego (1994) used the PREP Scale on first year teachers, who had graduated from the 1989-1990 University of British Columbia, Faculty of Education Two-Year Elementary Program. From the teaching tasks for which participants found themselves most and least prepared, three distinct groups emerged. Only one task, integrating learning from two or more subject areas, appeared in the sets of greatest preparedness tasks for all three groups. Among the tasks for which all three groups found themselves least prepared, only one task, monitoring the whole class while working with a part of it, was common.

Teacher Preparation

Effect of courses. The task of teacher education programs is to provide initial preparation that develops prospective teachers' inclination and capacity to engage in

the sort of intellectual dialogue and principled action required for effective teaching (Barnes, 1989). In an attempt to fulfil this task, typical teacher educators provide students with coursework that has an array of surface knowledge from all the domains of teaching-related knowledge (Barnes, 1989). There are a variety of views about these courses.

According to students surveyed by McDermott, Rothenberg, and Gormley (1991), general education and introductory education courses had the least impact on learning to become teachers. These same students valued methods courses, thinking that they were as important as practica. Research elsewhere has also reached the conclusion that foundation courses were considered not very useful by students (Castle & Dworet, 1987). Zeichner and Gore (1990) found that student teachers' ideas and beliefs about teaching showed few signs of change during their coursework.

While little change did occur, it usually happened when or after students took methods courses (Bright & Vacc, 1994;

Hodges, 1982; Yon & Passe, 1990). Morine-Dershimer (1989) discovered that student teachers' changes in concepts of teacher planning were clearly connected to concepts dealt with in a methods course. What methods course instructors said in class changed student teachers' personal values and ideas, and influenced their practice (Pape, 1992). Student teachers do use the strategies emphasized in university coursework (Browne & Hoover, 1990). Hodges (1982) reported that student teachers began practica with views consonant with those espoused in methods courses and had a desire to implement some of the goals discussed in methods courses.

In changing student teachers' ideas and beliefs about teaching, the relevance of methods courses is also very important (Bloodsworth, 1994; Browne & Hoover, 1990; Bruneau, Niles, Slanina & Dunlap, 1993). Evidence suggests that teacher educators have made great efforts to make methods courses more practical (Andrews & Wheeler, 1990; Bradley, 1985; Epperly & Preus, 1989; Gormley, Rothenberg & McDermott, 1991; Michelsen, LaSovage & Duffy, 1983; Smith & Pape, 1990).

There is a popular presumption that knowledge bases "exist and that every faculty ought to attend carefully to the knowledge bases that underlie its teacher education program" (Tom & Valli, 1990, p. 389). Teacher preparation programs adhere to various philosophical and pedagogical positions, but the main aim of coursework in a teacher education program has usually been to provide student teachers with a knowledge base considered necessary for them to function effectively in a professional way when they begin teaching in elementary and secondary schools. In this tradition, students have spent a large amount of time in classrooms acquiring conceptions of standard classroom practices and solutions to teaching problems. Often university instructors and students in a teacher education program have different views about the relevance and practicability of the knowledge introduced in the courses (Kelly & Kelly, 1983). School teachers also tend to disagree with university instructors, feeling that a disproportionate amount of time has been given to theoretical

studies with practical concerns relegated to a minor place (Fulton, 1983).

University instructors tend to stress the necessary breadth of the knowledge that students are supposed to need for their later practice (McNally et al., 1994). Students, in contrast, often tend to stress the practicability of the knowledge they think they will have to master when they start their career in elementary and secondary schools (Amarel & Feiman-Nemser, 1988; Green & Miklos, 1987; Kelly, 1989). They think coursework in education classes should cover more of the practical aspects of teaching (Kelly & Kelly, 1983). From the students' perspective, having a knowledge base for teaching involves not only theoretical knowledge but also insight into how this knowledge is properly related to practice (Tom & Valli, 1990). They are anxious to learn the "how-to-do" specifics of teaching (Hodges, 1982). Some student teachers have stated that there is no point in attending classes that did not speak directly to what to do as teachers (Munby & Russell, 1993).

There is not much empirical evidence about the effect that teacher training coursework has on preservice student teachers (Bennett & Carre, 1993; Grossman, 1991; Zeichner & Gore, 1990). Because of their relative brevity and inherent discontinuities, teacher education programs seldom serve as strong interventions in the professional growth of teachers (Grossman, 1991). The conclusions of the research on the effect of courses suggest that student teachers' personal values and beliefs show few signs of change during their professional education (Wubbels, 1992; Zeichner, Tabachnick, & Densmore, 1987). Evidence also exists that student teachers

> ...tend to believe that they were not taught essential knowledge, such as how to manage a classroom, regardless of whether or not they were exposed to such knowledge. The explanation offered for this phenomenon is that, as students, prospective teachers do not see the relevance of much that they are taught. Without immediate need for the knowledge, they do not attend to it closely. (McDiarmid, 1990, p. 12)

Some university supervisors felt that student teachers were reluctant to plan and use innovative and creative instruction despite their recent coursework featuring the latest knowledge, methods and materials (Pape, 1992). On the other hand, some students expressed distress with the lack of consistency between what they had been taught in their methods courses and what they saw being done in their classrooms (Smith & Pape, 1990). Research suggests that there is a discrepancy between study that is highly relevant to teaching in schools and what is now generally possessed by practising teachers (Goodlad, 1990).

Research suggests that there is little if any relationship between theoretical coursework and student teaching performance, although attempts have been made to bridge the gap between professional coursework and the practicum (Gerald & Peper, 1985). In their critical review of Canadian teacher education, Wideen and Holborn (1986) concluded that "campus courses are not held in high esteem by students, teachers, or principals. The most favourably viewed

component of teacher education is the practicum. ... Teachers report that the teacher training component occurring on campus had little impact on teaching" (p. 574).

Effect of practica. During field experiences, student teachers tended to conform to the practices of their cooperating teachers (Griffin, 1983). In critically reviewing research papers on Canadian teacher education published during the period of 1971-1985, Wideen and Holborn (1986) conclude that "the practicum, particularly if extended in length, has a strong socializing influence on students" and that "the socializing effects of the practicum cancel out the effects of campus input" (p. 574). "When this is coupled with the finding that students entered teaching because they enjoyed their own experience in classrooms, the tendency to retain the status quo in teaching is very strong" (Wideen & Holborn, 1986, p. 574).

By warning students about the reality of the classroom, university instructors may be adding to student teachers'

perceptions that their roles imply imitation (Pape, 1992). In addition, due to the prospective teachers' own familiarity with the classroom as elementary and secondary school students, the experience Lortie (1975) calls the "apprenticeship of observation," it is difficult for them to consider alternative visions of teaching and learning (Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985).

In his analysis of self-efficacy, Bandura (1981) argued that

> ...competence in dealing with one's environment is not a fixed act... Rather, it involves a generative capability in which component cognitive, social, and motor skills are organized into integrated courses of action in accordance with certain rules... Performance of a skill requires continuous improvisation and adjustment to ever changing circumstances. ...the initiation and regulation of transactions with the environment are partly governed by judgments of operative capabilities. Self-efficacy is concerned with judgments about how well one can organize

and execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations that contain many ambiguous, unpredictable, and often stressful elements. (pp. 200-201)

Bandura (1986) further explained that the judgment of one's ability to accomplish a certain level of performance may derive from four sources: enactive sources (one's own performance accomplishments), vicarious sources (observing successful models provided by others), persuasory sources (other people's verbal persuasion), and emotive sources (emotional or physiological arousal). According to Bandura (1981, 1986), the enactive sources are the most important sources in raising or lowering efficacy appraisals.

Education students' feelings of preparedness to teach may also be considered a kind of self-judgment. In preparing education students for teaching, the use of field experiences during the courses in pedagogical methods is prevalent throughout teacher education (Applegate & Lasley, 1986). "All Canadian programs include some form of practicum, ranging from

two 3-week experiences during a professional year" to one and a half semesters (Wideen & Holborn, 1986, p. 562). "Researchers in this area also report findings that corroborate the continued importance of the practicum in Canadian programs" (Castle, 1991, p. 1). Because enactive sources are the main sources of feelings of preparedness, it seems appropriate to make sure that education students have successful and sufficient field experiences (Housego, 1990b).

In each of her four studies of student teachers' feelings of preparedness to teach, Housego (1990a, 1990b, 1992a, 1992b) discussed practicum as a salient element in the development of these feelings. She noticed that there were greater increases in feelings of preparedness to teach in classroom management than in other aspects because the participants' teacher preparation program's field experiences emphasized "survival" (Housego, 1990a). She wondered how these feelings might change with more classroom experiences. Applying Bandura's theory to preservice teacher education, Housego pointed out that the field experience components provided important enactive input

(information gathered from one's own performance accomplishments). Accordingly, Housego suggested that an extended practicum "in which student teachers could know pupils better and become more independent and established in the classroom" (p. 54) would be beneficial.

Housego (1990b) observed that questions as to the appropriate type of teaching assignment, the duration of the assignment, the sensitive supervision of field experience, and the compatibility of student teachers and their supervisors must be addressed. She suggested that a coordinated approach may be sought to provide feedback in the form of three-way supervisory conferences (sponsor teacher, faculty advisor, and student teacher). When the practicum was extended, Housego (1992a, 1992b) noted that it was a positive experience for most students.

Problems of practica. Student teachers, cooperating teachers (or associate teachers as they are called in Ontario) and university instructors agree on the worth of experiences

of practica (Castle, 1991; Kelly & Kelly, 1983). But it seems that roles and responsibilities of the three groups are often not clearly explained and there is a lack of mutual understanding (Guyton & McIntyre, 1990). There are concerns that the associate teacher's "role as supervisor tends to be poorly defined, and they are left to operate without it being clearly established just what criteria are ultimately most effective for use by them in helping, guiding and evaluating a student's development" (Castle, 1991, p. 1). Wideen and Holborn (1986) point out that "roles, particularly those of the supervising teacher, are confused. It appears that, amid such confusion, teachers tend to play a supporting role for students while faculty supervisors take a more critical position" (p. 574).

Student teachers, cooperating teachers and university supervisors held divergent views on expectations of student teaching (Martin & Wood, 1984). "While differences in perception can be positive in many cases, it is unlikely that different views held by the teachers and the university

supervisors work to the best interest of students" (Wideen & Holborn, 1986). When university supervisors' expectations for the student teachers were different from those of the cooperating teachers, tensions could arise (MacKinnon, 1989).

The three parties had different opinions concerning the problems regarding field experiences. The university supervisor and the student teacher viewed the cooperating teacher's lack of modelling and expertise as a serious problem, and the cooperating teacher saw insufficient help from the university supervisor as a problem (Wideen & Holborn, 1986). Yet they agreed on one thing: lack of communication is a conspicuous and recurring theme. Research suggests that planned, purposeful discussions with each other about roles, responsibilities and expectations might alleviate frustrations and confusions among the parties involved (Guyton & McIntyre, 1990). In addition, "training in clinical supervision for supervising teachers is received positively, possibly because it tends to clarify their role" (Wideen & Holborn, 1986, p. 574).

The practicum may be somewhat frustrating for student teachers in the beginning because "there was a wide gap between the idealistic teaching situations in university classes and the real world of the classroom" (Bessai & Edmonds, 1977, p. 26). Also, in the classrooms there are a variety of problems, problems that can be solved with different solutions without being wrong, and problems for which there are few answers. Understandably, student teachers tend to want explicit answers about "how to do it" (Grossman, 1991). As they gain experience, they should reflect on their practice and internalize their reflection (Grossman, 1991).

Research suggests that field experiences in classrooms tended to contribute to students' development of practical teaching perspectives (Zeichner, 1981-82). Most student teachers do value their practicum experiences, considering them among the greatest contributors to an understanding of how to teach (Gormley et al., 1991). "The practicum component of a teacher-education program is often considered the best indicator of future success as a teacher" (Scaldwell, Emerson

& Frame, 1984, p. 82). Teachers also rated their student teaching experience highly as the single most beneficial segment of their teacher education program (Haring & Nelson, 1980).

In North America, the trend seems to be toward extending the practicum, providing preservice student teachers with more field experiences (Bloodsworth, 1994; Guyton & McIntyre, 1990; Housego, 1992a; McDermott, 1991). There is "strong support for the idea of increasing the amount of field experiences in teacher education" among graduate students, faculties (Yellin, Bull, Warner, Neuberger & Robinson, 1988, p. 8), student teachers, and practising teachers (Wideen & Holborn, 1986). "Faculties of education have been under great pressure to extend the length of the practicum and incorporate many of the features found in other professional internships" (Covert & Clifton, 1983, p. 298).

"The conventional wisdom in Canada maintains that the extension of student teaching practica will promote the professionalization of teachers" (Covert & Clifton, p. 298),

although there are different opinions that raise doubts about the accuracy of the claim "that by extending the student teaching practicum, attitudes towards professionalism and teaching as a career would show gains similar to those experienced in technical competency" (Covert & Clifton, p. 305). The Ontario Report of the Royal Commission on Learning also recommends that "student teachers need longer blocks of time working in schools" (Bégin et al., 1994, p. 17).

The conclusions from a study done by McDermott, Rothenberg and Gormley (1991) indicate that after the completion of required professional coursework, preservice teachers grow in confidence as a result of student teaching. Calderhead (1987) found that preservice teachers' self-perceived roles in the classrooms changed during their practica, while Jones and Vesilind (1994) discovered that during student teaching the preservice teachers' pedagogical knowledge underwent radical reconstruction, involving a reorganization of prior knowledge, theories, and beliefs. The student teaching experience heavily influences a student's

decision as to whether to enter the teaching profession or not (Kelly & Kelly, 1983; Scaldwell et al., 1984).

While student teachers and experienced teachers regard student teaching as the most valuable aspect of preservice preparation (Evertson, 1990), "it is also widely regarded as a problem, an on-the-job experience that promotes isolation, practical expediency, and dependence on conventional wisdom" (Cochran-Smith, 1991, p. 104). Among issues raised about the practicum experience, the question "about the tendency of many student teachers to passively conform to the practices of their cooperating teachers" stands out (MacKinnon, 1989, p. 2). In a study of four student teachers at a Canadian university, MacKinnon (1989) found that "conformity was, ... a fact of life for the student teachers throughout ... the practicum. Whether for reasons of status, or out of concern for the children, or as a result of a pragmatic self-interest in a good evaluation, all of the student teachers defined the practicum as a situation where significant change was not an advisable course of action" (p. 14).

Previous research suggests that there is a pressure on student teachers to conform to existing policies and practices in school settings (Hodges, 1982). Student teachers mentioned that school pressures were the first factor that made them use conventional teaching methods (Hodges, 1982).

Cooperating teachers view the role of student teachers as imitative, not exploratory, believing that student teachers are placed in their classrooms to learn from their experiences, sometimes unintentionally limiting student teachers' roles by using supervision practices which encourage imitation rather than exploration (Tabachnick, Popkewitz & Zeichner, 1979). Student teachers were often involved in a narrow range of classroom activities over which they had little control (Tabachnick et al., 1979). Their interactions with children were brief and usually related to the task at hand (Tabachnick et al., 1979). Their teaching was routine and mechanical and was equal to moving pupils through predetermined lessons in a given period of time (Tabachnick et al., 1979).

In a study of eleven student teachers at a Canadian university, MacDonald (1993) found that prospective teachers believed that "their evaluation would suffer if they did not teach like the associate teacher" (p. 411). Student teachers often assumed a passive role in their interactions with cooperating teachers and student teaching tended to be a task of pleasing the cooperating teachers to receive a favourable evaluation (Tabachnick et al., 1979). The question, "How would the cooperating teacher evaluate me?" is not uncommon (MacKinnon, 1989). Among the students in MacKinnon's (1989) research, the most frequently mentioned reason for conforming to established practice was that all of them were being evaluated by their cooperating teachers. Thus, their practicum "would be the make or break component of their four-year B.Ed. program" (MacKinnon, 1989, pp. 12-13).

For students who have different ideas about conducting lessons from their cooperating teachers, there is the question of how much flexibility would the cooperating teacher allow me in planning and teaching my lessons (MacKinnon, 1989).

MacKinnon (1989) also found that students' "conformity was not a matter of passive acceptance of the status quo but was rather a response to their interpretations of the constraints of being a student teacher" (p. 2). In MacKinnon's (1989) study, all the student teachers,

> some more than others, were critical of the pedagogy they saw practised in their classroom. Most would have liked to try out some of the approaches advocated in the early childhood classes they took at university, and they claimed that if they were in their own classroom, things would be different. But they were not in their own classroom, and they did not try out many new ideas. (P. 10)

As "guests", "they saw themselves as being subservient to their cooperating teachers", "holding back in check all the impulses and beliefs which might clash with what they defined as the existing norms of their situations" (MacKinnon, 1989, p. 11). They felt they were expected to be teachers and students at the same time: teachers to the children, but

students to the cooperating teacher (MacKinnon, 1989). For these student teachers, "conformity was... a fact of life" (MacKinnon, 1989, p. 14). They "viewed the practicum as an artificial teaching experience in some ways" (MacKinnon, 1989, p. 14). MacKinnon (1989) pointed out, "student teaching simply did not provide the opportunity for these prospective teachers to try out many of the ideas and skills they had learned at university" (p. 14). The significance of the practicum to the teaching careers of MacKinnon's (1989) informants almost "precluded any attempts to do anything other than what the cooperating teacher specified" (p. 15).

In a study of five prospective teachers at an American university, Hodges (1982) discovered that even student teachers who do not have a cooperating teacher often act in ways that do not correspond with views they espoused immediately after taking methods courses. Hodges (1982) discovered that student teachers had the fear of being unsure of "how to teach". "They knew what to teach and even were familiar with some diagnostic tools, but they did not know

what to do with the information they had" (Hodges, 1982, p. 29). In Wood's (1990) words, "they learn from the job -- that is, they learn to function in the system as it is by adapting to it rather than change it to suit them" (p. 31).

Copeland (1977) suggests that the major influence on a student teacher's acquisition of skills is the environment of the school, where pupils, curriculum, community, and other school-related factors affect a student teacher's performance. The research in this area does not present the school as a positive influence on student teachers' development (Guyton & McIntyre, 1990). Often the role of cooperating teachers as teacher educators/supervisors and the socializing pressures of the school are negative influences (Grimmett & Ratzlaff, 1986). The environment of the school classroom cannot always be viewed as a positive means of promoting a program's orientation (Guyton & McIntyre, 1990). Richardson-Koehler (1988) concludes that student teachers, within two weeks, discounted the influence of their course instructor, attributing the majority of their practices to the cooperating

teacher. In a study about research on student teaching, Watts (1987) maintains that to a large extent the quality of student teaching programs depends on specific school sites, which are not designed to prepare student teachers and are beyond the control of university.

To make the student teaching experience an educative one, MacKinnon (1989) suggested that "every effort should be made to place student teachers in situations where they will be encouraged to experiment with new techniques and to explore different ways of approaching problems which arise in class" (pp. 16-17) and that "the student teaching experience should be as much a part of university-based, university-controlled teacher education as taking a course in early childhood" (p. 18). He also suggested that student teachers need a sound foundation in curricular and pedagogical theory and that they be encouraged and assisted to carefully analyse the assumptions which underlie classroom actions and to consider alternative instructional approaches.

According to MacKinnon (1989), these might "go a long way toward ensuring that conforming actions as student teachers do not follow them into their own classrooms" (p. 17). Wideen and Holborn (1986) argue that "a longer period of student teaching combined with specific program characteristics is apparently needed for significant change" in student teachers' self-concept, motivation for teaching, professional attitudes, and anxiety (p. 567).

Classroom management. Researchers have concluded that classroom management is one of the important aspects that education students should learn and practise in their coursework and practicum (Covert, Williams & Kennedy, 1991; Housego, 1992, 1994; Reynolds, 1992). Teaching and classroom management cannot exist independently from each other (Levin & Nolan, 1991). Both new and experienced teachers recognize classroom management as one of the most important foundations of good instruction (Emmer, Evertson, Clements, and Worsham, 1994).

In their study of critical incidents in the supervision of student teaching, Housego and Boldt (1985) discovered that 49 percent of the total number of incidents have to do with organization and management. Staab (1984) found that student teachers rated themselves lower on their classroom management abilities than on their personal qualities, preparation for instruction, or use of teaching skills.

Student teachers rated instruction in disciplinary methods during coursework as essential (Wideen & Holborn, 1986) and mentioned classroom survival as an important factor that influenced their decisions (Hodges, 1982). Management and control were often their most immediate concerns (Hodges, 1982). "Problems with class control and discipline create the greatest anxieties in student teachers" (Reed, 1989, p. 60). Sometimes just keeping all the children quiet and busy became the primary reason for an assignment (Hodges, 1982). Cooperating teachers were also very critical of student teachers in classroom management, thinking that more classroom management training was needed (Kelly & Kelly, 1983). Wesley

and Vocke (1992) pointed out that student teachers wanted more time to be spent on classroom maintenance during preservice training. Rust (1994), in his study on first year teachers, determined that beginning teachers had difficulties in managing classrooms.

Epanchin, Townsend, and Stoddard (1994) concluded that "in reality, creating order and harmony in school for any length of time is probably an impossible dream -- but we expect it of educators daily" (p. 5). A teacher often has to be "a diagnostician and problem solver -- one who engages in an internal dialogue to arrive at management insights and interventions -- and as an enabler -- one who creates conditions that maximize pupil cooperation and achievement" (Froyen, 1993, p. vi). Doyle (1979) describes certain characteristics peculiar to classrooms -- multidimensionality, simultaneity, immediacy, and unpredictability, and suggests that teachers are required to possess a special set of management skills.

Kounin (1970) identified two skills exhibited by good

teachers that seem to be especially related to the classroom characteristics described by Doyle. First, good classroom managers exhibit the ability to know what children are doing in the classroom. Second, good teachers exhibit the ability to attend to separate issues simultaneously. Copeland (1987) called the first ability, "vigilance", and the second one, "multiple attention." The results of his experiment, designed to test the relationship between these two abilities and success in classroom management, suggest that competency in the two cognitive skills is an important factor in determining success in creating classrooms characterized by high on-task behaviour (Copeland, 1987).

Teachers regard pupil discipline as one of the most serious problems in today's schools (Reed, 1989). Petty annoyances and trivial but disruptive behaviours pose frequent and perplexing problems for teachers (Wayson, 1985). Jones (1986) concluded that student misbehaviour creates frustration for teachers. "Little learning takes place in the classroom

where the teacher spends more time correcting misbehaviour than teaching" (Reed, 1989, p. 60).

A study by Wright, O'Hair, and Alley (1988) concludes that preservice programs need to focus on discipline in schools, and suggests that teacher education programs that provide instruction in discipline can help reduce the stress felt by student teachers. Upon completing a study of the most serious discipline problems of 300 student teachers at an American university, Reed (1989) recommended that "teacher education programs give more emphasis to and preparation for classroom management and discipline to preservice teachers" (p. 63).

Effects of teacher preparation programs. What are the competencies that characterize an effective student teacher? In answering this question, the expectations Reynolds (1992) has for beginning teachers before they enter the first year of teaching might be utilized:

1) Knowledge of the subject matter they will teach;

2) The disposition to find out about their students and school, and the ethnographic and analytic skills to do so;

3) Knowledge of strategies, techniques, and tools for creating and sustaining a learning community, and the skills and abilities to employ these strategies, techniques, and tools;

4) Knowledge of pedagogy appropriate for the content area they will teach; and

5) The disposition to reflect on their own actions and students' responses in order to improve their teaching, and the strategies and tools for doing so. (p. 26)

In addition to knowledge and skills, "teachers need certain personality characteristics to execute teaching tasks in a competent manner. Personality characteristics are those interests, temperaments, personality traits, and moral/ethical standards that suggest what the teacher is likely to do rather than how well he or she can do at peak performance" (Reynolds,

1992, p. 5). The character traits Reynolds (1992) synthesizes include enthusiasm, warmth, supportiveness of students, sensitivity, interest in people, flexibility, self-confidence, honesty, intellectual freedom, equity, tolerance, due process, respect, trust, and care. Although indications are that many student teachers are not able to meet the expectations mentioned above (Reynolds, 1992), at least teacher educators can make appropriate efforts to work towards this aim. In developing a better teacher preparation program, one crucial aspect is to find the most harmonious mix between university input and the field experience (Horowitz, 1974).

One problem of many teacher education programs is that student teachers graduate with their previous ideas about teaching basically unchanged (McDiarmid, 1990). In an effort to challenge student teachers' beliefs, McDiarmid (1990) designed a field experience as the core of a "Exploring Teaching" course. The goal was to force students to identify their assumptions. However, he was sceptical about the effects of the course, because "the strength of each individual belief

about teaching, learning, learners, subject matter knowledge, and context is formidable" (p. 18). Basically, their initial beliefs about teaching are rarely challenged, either in coursework or in practicum,

> most prospective teachers complete their teacher education programs without having examined the bases for their most fundamental beliefs about the teacher's role, pedagogy, diverse learners, learning, subject matter, and the role of context. Teacher education students rarely become aware of the assumptions on which they operate. Instead, they either reconfigure ideas and information they encounter to fit with their initial beliefs or they simply reject or ignore what does not fit (McDiarmid, 1990, p. 13).

To foster innovative practices in teaching among student teachers, some of their preconceptions about competent teaching should be changed. One way of changing students' previous beliefs is to "overcorrect" for typical practice learned from personal experience (Grossman, 1991). Students

tend to listen only to the evidence which supports their previous ideas and to ignore contradicting evidence, when both are offered (Grossman, 1991). Overcorrection can deal with the tendency of people to use a mixture of supporting and contradicting evidence to confirm their previous ideas and assumptions (Lord, Ross, & Lepper, 1979). Overcorrecting, or

> ... going to extremes in teacher education may ensure that when beginning teachers drift back towards the models they have observed for so long in classrooms -- which they almost inevitably will -- they will still retain elements of the approaches or beliefs advocated by teacher educators. (Grossman, 1991, p. 351)

Summary

In reviewing the literature, several concepts and issues concerning teacher education were dealt with. These included the advantages and disadvantages of consecutive and concurrent programs, preconceptions education students have when they enter a teacher preparation program, students' preparedness to teach, the effect of previous courses, of practicum, and of

teacher preparation program, and the issue of classroom management.

The few studies comparing consecutive and concurrent programs advocate the advantages of a concurrent program, and claim it to be the only adequate program to train teachers (Smitheram, 1971; Smitheram & Hillis, 1974). Many scholars maintain that preconceptions education students have are stable and rarely confronted in teacher preparation programs (Barnes, 1989; Wubbles, 1992). Research suggests that educational courses only have a weak effect on students' knowledge, skills, and dispositions (Zeichner & Gore, 1990). When some small change does occur, this change often develops during the time while students take methods courses (Bright & Vacc, 1994).

Teacher educators believe that the practicum is important in developing student teachers skills (Castle, 1991; Kelly & Kelly, 1983), but they also notice the problems arising in field experiences (Guyton & McIntyre, 1990). During the practicum, the issue of classroom management is prominent

(Hodges, 1982). Reed (1989) recommended that teacher preparation programs give more emphasis to "classroom management and discipline to preservice teachers" (p.63).

The lack of research comparing consecutive and concurrent students raises many questions regarding their differences and development in feelings of preparedness to teach. What advantages, if any, do three years of a concurrent program provide over the consecutive program? What effect do the coursework and practicum experiences have on these two groups? Considering the importance of classroom management and discipline, how do the practicum experiences of the two groups compare? Is there a relationship between feelings of preparedness to teach and classroom management and discipline problems experienced?

Chapter III

Methodology

This chapter presents the research methodology in the study. It describes the research questions, the research instruments, the subjects, the research design, data collection, and data analyses.

Research Questions

In this study, the following questions were asked:

Part one

1. Are there significant differences in perceived preparedness to teach as measured by the Student Teachers' Feelings of Preparedness for Teaching" (PREP) scale in mean scores between consecutive and concurrentgroups at the beginning of the final year of their teacher preparation programs?

2. Are there significant differences in perceived preparedness to teach as measured by the PREP scale in mean scores between consecutive and concurrent groups at the conclusion of the classroom portion of the fall semester?

3. Are there significant differences in perceived preparedness to teach as measured by the PREP scale in mean scores between consecutive and concurrent groups atthe conclusion of the practicum portion of the fall semester?

Part two

4. Are there significant differences in perceived classroom management problems as measured by the Haines Inventory in mean scores of consecutive and concurrent groups at the conclusion of the practicum portion of the fall term?

5. Is there a significant correlation between the total scores on the Haines Inventory and on the third PREP scale?

Instruments

PREP scale. Two research instruments were used in this study. The first one is the "Student Teachers' Feelings of Preparedness to Teach Scale" (PREP Scale) designed by Housego (1990a). Housego (1990a) constructed the PREP Scale in 1986 to measure the degree to which student teachers felt prepared to perform a set of tasks central to teaching and applicable across grade levels and subject matter fields. Permission to use this scale was granted by B. E. J. Housego (Appendix E). The PREP Scale has 50 items. Each item is stated so as to complete the sentence "I feel prepared to ..." and is accompanied by a 7-point Likert scale, from "almost completely unprepared (1)" to "almost completely prepared (7)". The higher the total score is, the more the student teacher feels prepared to teach. "In repeated administrations it has been found to be highly reliable (between 0.95 and 0.97 based on Hoyt's coefficient, an index of item homogeneity) and valid for the purposes of the studies in which it has been used" (Housego, 1994, p. 356-357). Besides face validity quoted

above, no empirical evidence of validity is provided by Housego.

Haines Inventory. The second investigation instrument used in the research was an Inventory constructed by Haines (1990). Utilising Reed's study (1989), Haines designed an Inventory to study classroom management and discipline problems student teachers encountered during their practice teaching.

Each of seventeen classroom management and discipline problems is used as the subject of a sentence completed by "... was a serious problem during my teaching experience." For each statement, student teachers were requested to indicate their experiences by circling an appropriate number on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly agree" (1) to "strongly disagree" (5). The total score of the Haines Inventory is obtained by adding all the item scores together. The higher the total score is, the less classroom management problems the student teacher encounters. No validity and reliability data for the Haines Inventory has been provided.

The rationale for selecting the PREP scale is that it was Housego (1990a) who first put forward the concept of "feelings of preparedness to teach" and she conducted research with the PREP scale for a considerable period, refining it continuously in the process. Partly, this study is an extension of Housego's studies. The reason for choosing the Haines Inventory is that it is the only classroom management problem measurement instrument designed by a Canadian teacher educator, which makes it more relevant to the study.

Participants

Number of students. The 88 participants in this research were students enrolled in the preservice teacher education programs at the Faculty of Education, Lakehead University, Thunder Bay, Ontario, during the 1995-1996 academic year. There were two groups of these participants. One group consisted of fourth-year concurrent education students (N=47). The second group consisted of one-year post-degree preservice, or consecutive, education students (N=41).

These students were selected because they were in two "Educational Psychology" sections taught by the same professor. Each class was almost entirely consecutive or concurrent students, with only one or two exceptions. All the students were being certified to be elementary teachers.

Gender, division and age. There were 14 male and 74 female students. Sixty-six students were in the primary and junior division and 22 students were in the junior and intermediate division. Of the 88 students, the youngest was 21 years old and the oldest was 43.

Seven (17%) of the 41 consecutive students were male, and 34 (82%) were female. Twenty students (49%) were in the primary and junior division, and 21 students (51%) were in the junior and intermediate division. The range of ages of the consecutive students was from 22 to 38. The mean age was 26.195 with a standard deviation of 3.983.

Seven (15%) of the 47 concurrent students were male, and 40 (85%) were female. Forty-six students (98%) were in the primary and junior division and 1 student (2%) was in the

junior and intermediate division. The range of ages of the concurrent students was 21 to 43. The mean age was 23.756 with a standard deviation of 5.082.

These data are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

Characteristics of Research Participants

	Consecutive	Concurrent
Age:		
Range	22-38	21-43
Mean	26.195	23.756
SD	3.983	5.082
Gender:		
Male	7 (17%)	7 (15%)
Female	34 (82%)	40 (85%)
Division:		
Primary/Junior	20 (49%)	46 (98%)
Junior/Intermediate	21 (51%)	1 (02%)

Table 2 shows that on average the consecutive students are about 2 years older than the concurrent students. In both the consecutive and the concurrent programs the majority of the students were females, 82% and 85%, respectively. In the consecutive program, almost half of the students were in the primary and junior division and half were in junior and intermediate division. Whereas in the concurrent program, almost all the students, except one, were in the primary and junior division. Both divisions prepare students to be elementary teachers.

Practicum and Classroom Management

Both the consecutive and concurrent students were enrolled in an "Educational Psychology" course with the same professor. The textbook used in that course was Educational psychology for Canadian teachers (Bowd, McDougall & Yewchuk, 1994). *Chapter 11: Classroom management and communication* addressed specifically the issue of classroom management. The Haines Inventory measures student teachers' experiences with

17 classroom management and discipline problems. Not all of 17 problems were specifically addressed, by name, in the "Educational Psychology" text.

Table 3 indicates the 10 Haines Inventory items that were mentioned in the text used for the "Educational Psychology"course:

Table 3

Haines Inventory Items Covered in Ed. Psych. Text

Excessive & inappropriate talking
Disruptive, disobedient, & uncooperative behaviour
Not doing classwork
Breaking rules
Stealing
Aggressive behaviour
Inattentiveness
Lack of motivation
Not being prepared
Problems with parents

The seven problems of the Haines Inventory, which were not specifically mentioned in the text, were: "racial harassment", "the 'class clown'", "instructional procedures difficulties", "insolence, rudeness, and smart-talk", "sexual harassment as a student teacher", "abusive language", and "not staying in seat".

Design

At the beginning of the fall term of the 1995-1996 academic year, two classes of 88 students in the final year of their teacher preparation programs at Lakehead University were given a "Participation Information Form" (see Appendix B), which requested their participation in this research project.

Those students who agreed to participate completed a "Student Teachers' Feelings of Preparedness for Teaching" scale at three times during the first half of the academic year. The first distribution of the Scale was shortly after the beginning of the academic year, during the second week of the fall semester. Eight weeks later, at the conclusion of the

fall courses, and prior to their first four-week practice teaching session, in early November, the second PREP scale was administered. The third PREP administration followed their first practice teaching when the student teachers returned to the Faculty of Education in early January 1996. At that time participants were also requested to complete the Haines Inventory. Table 4 presents the data collection schedule.

Table 4

Data Collection Schedule

Group	*Assessment 1 late Sept.*	*Assessment 2 early Nov.*	*Assessment 3 early Jan.*
4th year concurrent students	PREP & Background Experiences	PREP	PREP & HAINES INVENTORY
1 year consecutive students	PREP & Background Experiences	PREP	PREP & HAINES INVENTORY

Data Collection

During the first administration, eighty-eight students in two classes completed the PREP scale. The second time, 76 PREP scales were completed for a response rate of approximately 86%. The third time, 75 Scales were collected, a response rate of 85%. Absences (rather than refusals to participate) accounted for missing subjects at the second and third administrations.

Data Analyses

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 6.1 was used in analysing statistical data. Group means of the consecutive and concurrent students from three data collections were calculated. Several t-tests for independent samples were used to compare the PREP means of the consecutive students with those of the concurrent students in September, November and January. A t-test for independent samples was also used to compare the consecutive and concurrent students mean scores as derived from the Haines

Inventory total scores. Finally, a correlation coefficient was used to examine the extent of association between the 3rd PREP scores and the Haines Inventory results.

Chapter IV

Results and Analysis

Program Background Experiences

Along with the first "Student Teachers' Feelings of Preparedness for Teaching" (PREP) scale, relevant background experiences was solicited based on information from Haines (1990). These data concerned the students' experiences which might have helped to prepare them for teaching. Table 5 is a summary of the results.

According to the information provided, there were similarities and differences between the experiences that consecutive and concurrent students had before the first PREP administration. The 18 items in the table can be divided into 3 areas: formal teaching, informal teaching and teaching related experiences.

Table 5

Percentage of Participants' Reported Specific Background Experiences

	Consecutive (N=41)	Concurrent (N=47)
	%	%
Practice teaching	--	96
Supply teaching	22	11
Volunteer teaching	78	79
Coaching experiences	46	36
Teacher's aide	46	38
Sunday school teaching	10	40
Teaching skiing, swimming, etc.	49	49
Tutoring	63	53
Officiating sport events	32	45
Summer camp/program	49	45
Previous courses	71	77
Talking with teachers	90	96
Playing on teams	76	79
Previous work experiences	83	85
Being a parent	17	15
Books about teaching	76	87
Experiences dealing with children	100	96
Babysitting	85	94

Practice teaching and supply teaching are categorized as formal teaching experiences. The most obvious difference between consecutive students and concurrent students is the difference in practice teaching. The majority of concurrent students, 96%, indicated that they had practice teaching experiences when they took the first PREP, whereas no consecutive students had the opportunity to participate in formal practice teaching. Concurrent students had been provided the opportunity for classroom observation and teaching one half day each week during their third year. They also practice taught for nine full school days after the completion of their final examinations at the end of their third year. More consecutive students (22%) did supply teaching than did concurrent students (10%).

The informal teaching experiences include experiences of volunteer teaching, coaching, teaching aid, Sunday school teaching, teaching skiing and swimming, and tutoring. More consecutive students had experiences of coaching (46% versus 36%), teaching aid (46% versus 38%), and tutoring (63% versus

53%), whereas more concurrent students had experiences of Sunday school teaching (40% versus 10%). Similar proportions of consecutive students and concurrent students had the experiences of volunteer teaching and teaching skiing, swimming, etc. This indicates that both groups had some previous informal teaching experiences not related to the education programs at Lakehead University. The "Sunday school teaching" experiences of the concurrent group (40%) and consecutive group (10%) represents the greatest difference in this informal teaching area.

The rest of the 18 items are included in the area of teaching related experiences. More concurrent students had experiences of reading teaching-related books (87% versus 76%), babysitting (94% versus 85%), and officiating sport events (45% versus 32%). With the exception of the formal teaching experience of the concurrent program, consecutive students and concurrent students had generally similar educationally-related experiences.

The concurrent education program provided those students further background differences. During their first year at Lakehead University, they participated in an education seminar. Their second year required an "Introduction to student teaching" course. Third year required courses were "Educational Media", "Curriculum Planning", and "Evaluation". These three courses were part of the one-year program offered to consecutive students.

Research Question One: Preparedness to Teach and Program Structure upon Entry

Are there significant differences in the "Student Teachers' Feelings of Preparedness for Teaching" Scale mean scores between the consecutive and concurrent groups at the beginning of the final year of their teacher preparation programs?

The results of the t-test on the first PREP Scale are indicated in Table 6.

On the first PREP administration the mean of the consecutive group ($\bar{X}$=224.78, SD=53.12) was significantly lower ($p<0.01$) than that of the concurrent group ($\bar{X}$=271.72, SD=35.46).

Table 6

Comparison of consecutive and concurrent first PREP scores

group	n	Mean	SD	df	t-value	Sig.
consecutive	41	224.78	53.12	86	4.93	<.01
concurrent	47	271.72	35.46			

Research Question Two: Preparedness to Teach and Program Structure after Class Instruction

Are there significant differences in PREP mean scores between consecutive and concurrent groups at the conclusion of the classroom portion of the fall semester?

A t-test was again used to assess mean differences between concurrent and consecutive groups. Table 7 reports the results.

On the second PREP administration, following the class portion of the fall semester, the mean of the consecutive group ($\bar{X}$=256.16, SD=34.75) was significantly lower ($p<0.05$) than that of the concurrent group ($\bar{X}$=276.43, SD=33.57).

Table 7

Comparison of consecutive and concurrent Second PREP scores

group	n	Mean	SD	df	t-value	Sig.
consecutive	37	256.16	34.75	74	2.59	.012
concurrent	39	276.43	33.57			

Research Question Three: Preparedness to Teach and Program Structure after Practicum

Are there significant differences in PREP mean scores between the consecutive and concurrent groups at the conclusion of the practicum portion of the semester?

The third PREP was administered in early January, after the first four-week practicum in the programs and the Christmas holiday season, when the students returned to university to begin the winter term. On this administration the mean of the consecutive group ($\bar{X}$=294.13, SD=30.95) was not significantly different from that of the concurrent group ($\bar{X}$=302.39, SD=32.59).

Table 8

Comparison of consecutive and concurrent third PREP scores

group	n	Mean	SD	df	t-value	Sig.
consecutive	37	294.13	30.95	73	1.12	.264
concurrent	38	302.39	32.59			

Research Question Four: Classroom Management Problems and Program Structure

Are there significant differences in Haines Inventory mean scores between consecutive and concurrent groups at the conclusion of the practicum portion of the program?

Table 9 reveals that there was no significant difference on the means of the Haines Inventory total scores between consecutive ($\bar{X}$=63.32, SD=13.84) and concurrent ($\bar{X}$=64.97, SD=8.74) students.

Table 9

Results of T-tests for Haines Inventory scores

group	n	Mean	SD	df	t-value	Sig.
consecutive	37	63.32	13.84	73	.62	.538
concurrent	38	64.97	8.74			

Research Question Five: Preparedness to Teach and Classroom Management Problems

Is there a significant correlation between the Haines Inventory scores and the third PREP total scores?

A low but significant correlation ($p<0.01$, $r=0.296$) between the PREP scores and the Haines Inventory scores was obtained. This indicates that there was an association between students' feelings of preparedness to teach monitored on the third PREP scale and classroom management problems they encountered as measured on the Haines Inventory scores.

Chapter V

Discussion, Conclusions and Implications

The main issues addressed in this study were: 1) the influence of program features on the development of student teachers' self-efficacy beliefs; 2) the relationship between efficacy beliefs and students' teaching performance while on practicum. In outlining the relationship between program features and efficacy, the effects of program duration were examined. In examining the relationship between efficacy beliefs and teaching performance, aspects of classroom management and discipline were considered.

With respect to the first issue, PREP score responses of students enrolled in the concurrent and consecutive programs were compared at different points in the term -- upon entry to the program; after a period of classroom instruction; and following the practicum.

Preparedness to teach upon entry

The first assessment revealed highly significant differences between the consecutive and the concurrent groups in feelings of preparedness to teach. These differences may, in part, be accounted for by the fact that the concurrent program had been formally preparing these students for teaching during three years. In their first year of the program, concurrent students completed an education seminar. This was followed by an "Introduction to Student Teaching" course in the second year. In their third year, this program included three courses, "Educational Media", "Curriculum Planning", and "Evaluation". In addition, during their third year, they were exposed to classroom experiences of one half day every week plus nine full days of student teaching. In contrast, the consecutive students had just started courses as part of their one-year post-degree program.

The similar experiences of the concurrent students over the past three years may have created a more homogeneous group, at least in their feelings of preparedness to teach.

In contrast, the consecutive students were less homogeneous on the first PREP results. These differences in variation may be attributed to the fact that these one-year students were on average slightly over two years older than the concurrent group and brought a greater variety of experiences from many universities, primarily throughout Ontario, and from different walks of life. Individual differences among the students -- including the greater formal educational experience of the concurrent students, especially practice teaching -- seem to result in distinctly different feelings of self-efficacy at the beginning of the preservice year.

Preparedness to teach after class instruction

On the second PREP administration, following the Faculty of Education course portion of the fall semester, the mean of the consecutive group was significantly lower than that of the concurrent group. Between the first and second PREP administrations, all consecutive and concurrent students had

been taking courses. The majority of the courses they took were similar.

During the fall semester, courses, which both the consecutive and concurrent students had in common, were "Ontario Education", "Educational Psychology", "Environmental Studies", "Language Arts", "Mathematics", and "Expressive Arts" (Music, Art, and Physical Education). In addition, the consecutive students were enrolled in "curriculum planning", a course which the concurrent students completed in their third year.

On the second PREP, the standard deviations of the consecutive group and the concurrent group were similar. Regarding their feelings of preparedness to teach, both groups had become more homogeneous. From the first PREP to the second PREP, the change in standard deviation for the consecutive students is quite noteworthy when compared with the concurrent change. Coursework appears to have had a greater "equalizing" effect in the consecutive group.

The significant difference in means does, however, indicate the continuing effect of initial individual differences on PREP score responses. Despite a similar classroom instruction sequence of the first term in the preservice program, there appears to be no marked shift in student views, as measured by the group means.

Preparedness to teach after practicum

After the practicum, on the third administration, the mean of the consecutive group was not significantly different from that of the concurrent group. Interestingly, both groups continued to become more homogeneous, as reflected by the standard deviations of the consecutive (30.95) and concurrent (32.59) groups.

The original significant differences of feelings of preparedness to teach between consecutive and concurrent students had disappeared following the practicum experience. Either the classroom instruction combined with practicum operated to erase significant differences between the groups,

or some combination of individual difference variables and features of the program jointly worked to diminish differences between concurrent and consecutive students' efficacy feelings.

These results suggest that duration as defined in terms of the concurrent program, which distributes its training over a four-year period, is effective in developing positive efficacy beliefs among the students but not any more so than the consecutive program, at least by the end of the first term of the final year.

When duration is considered in terms of the effects on efficacy belief development of the two groups over a single term versus a whole year, then the term appears sufficient but only when the nature of the program is considered. Specifically, the combined effects of classroom instruction and practice teaching -- alone or in combination with the individual differences of the students -- are sufficient to enable the consecutive students to develop efficacy beliefs that are as strong as those of the concurrent students.

The necessity of combining both classroom and field experiences is not surprising. Housego (1992b) has maintained that the practicum was an important addition to classroom instruction in fostering efficacy beliefs. Both program components appear to play complementary roles and together have a cumulative effect on students' beliefs.

Classroom management problems and program structure

The classroom management and discipline problems student teachers encountered during the practicum were investigated with the use of the Haines Inventory. There was no significant difference on the means of the Haines Inventory total scores between consecutive and concurrent students. This indicates that for the groups considered in this study there was no significant difference in the number of classroom management and discipline problems experienced by the consecutive group and concurrent group. This finding was consistent with that of the third PREP Scale scores where no significant difference

with regards to feelings of preparedness to teach was found between the means of the consecutive and concurrent students.

Preparedness to teach and classroom management problems

The relationship between students' reported classroom management and discipline problems and feelings of preparedness to teach also was explored. A low but significant correlation coefficient between students' feelings of preparedness to teach, as measured on the third PREP, and classroom management problems, as measured on the Haines Inventory, was obtained. Although there were no significant differences between the groups in the number of reported behavioural problems, the low correlation between the Haines Inventory and the PREP scale offers a useful indicator of the validity of the Housego instrument.

The positive correlation between the third PREP scores and the Haines Inventory scores means that the more prepared a student teacher felt to teach, the less classroom management and discipline problems she or he experienced during student

teaching. This finding is consistent with that of Housego (1990a), who maintained that stronger feelings of preparedness to teach may let student teachers teach more confidently and secure pupil receptiveness.

One would expect only a low correlation between the PREP scale and the Haines Inventory. However, the low correlation is an indication that the two instruments are measuring different factors. The scope of the PREP items is much broader than that of the Haines Inventory, which addresses matters of classroom management and discipline. The PREP scale not only deals with classroom management and discipline problems, it also addresses the issues of curriculum planning, communicating with pupils, and evaluation.

Self-efficacy is a personal characteristic that grows out of the reciprocal relationships between the individual's pre-dispositions, his or her behaviour, and the environment in which the behaviour occurs (Bandura, 1978). In teacher education, student teachers might be expected to derive

feelings of preparedness to teach from successful teacher education experiences both in class and in practicum. Student teachers in this study did develop such self-efficacy feelings during one term in the final year of their teacher preparation programs. Their feelings of preparedness to teach grew substantially in this term. The mean of the PREP scores of the consecutive group increased from 224.78 in September to 294.13 in January. The PREP score mean of the concurrent group increased from 271.72 to 302.39 for the same period.

According to Bandura (1986), the enactive sources (one's own performance accomplishment) are the most important sources of self-efficacy feelings. The results of this study seems to suggest that practicum plays a more important role than classroom instruction in developing students' feelings of preparedness to teach.

The findings that the consecutive students' feelings of preparedness to teach were not significantly different from those of the concurrent students following the practicum and that the two groups experienced similar numbers of classroom

management problems during practicum raise questions about the claim that a concurrent program is more adequate than a consecutive program in training teachers (Smitheram, 1971; Smitheram & Hillis, 1974). The fact that advantages of a concurrent program disappeared after only one term tends to support Housego's (1992b) conclusion that many education students are confident they will be good teachers after completing a teacher preparation program and having further practice.

Conclusions

Although the concurrent students had, as a group, stronger feelings of preparedness to teach upon entering their final year, the difference in such self-efficacy feelings between the two groups disappeared at the end of the first term. The results of this study imply that in developing student teachers' feelings of preparedness to teach a consecutive program is as effective as a concurrent program, at least by the end of the first term of their final year.

There is an association between how prepared to teach student teachers feel and the number of classroom management problems they encounter in practicum. The more prepared to teach the student teachers feel, the fewer classroom management and discipline problems they experience during practicum.

Implications and Further Research

This study extended Housego's research by exploring differences in feelings of preparedness to teach between consecutive and concurrent students. It also assessed the separate and combined effects of the classroom and the field-based components.

Both areas require further study and analysis. Future study could focus on the nature of specific experiences within the practicum and coursework.

While acknowledging the value of defining program (or institutional) features as 'treatments' and testing their effects on efficacy, the study assumed that these program features were in large part defined by group membership, that

is, the characteristics of students enrolled. Individual differences then were included in the program labels such as concurrent or consecutive and group membership assessed in the comparisons between these groups. Further definition is needed of the differences in group membership in concurrent and consecutive programs.

In general, the relationship between efficacy beliefs as measured by the PREP scale and actual classroom teaching performance needs to be examined further. This study made only a preliminary assessment of the belief-performance linkage. The findings of the study tend to support Bandura's reciprocal determinism theory in that efficacy beliefs are better stimulated by the addition of a behavioural component, the practicum, to the preservice experience. Furthermore, the finding that the fewer classroom management and discipline problems student teachers encountered, the more they felt prepared to teach seems to confirm that the enactive sources (one's own performance accomplishment) are the most important sources in changing efficacy appraisals. Further validation

of Housego's PREP scale, particularly in relationship to other a, seems warranted. Similarly, the Haines inventory requires more exploration.

A more extensive, a province-wide or even nation-wide, study of consecutive and concurrent students' feelings of preparedness to teach and other teaching related variables may be helpful in decision-making in faculties of education concerned with the return on investment in their programming. In addition, longitudinal, such as three-, or five-year, research is suggested so that the long-term effects of consecutive and concurrent teacher preparation programs on student teachers can be better understood.

Limitations

There are two chief limitations to the results of this study. This study was limited by the instrumentation used. A scale and an inventory ensured consistency of responses across respondents, but the responses were limited to the extent these instruments could measure the variables being studied.

Secondly, caution should be exercised in generalizing the results because of the size and nature of the respondent groups. Respondents were not randomly selected and they were from two classes in one faculty of education in Ontario. It appears reasonable, however, to assume that the respondents in this research are similar to education students enrolled in other Canadian faculties of education.

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APPENDIX A

Faculty of Education calender 1995-1996

One-Year BEd/4th Year Concurrent Fall Student Teaching Schedule

	M	T	W	T	F		M	T	W	T	F		M	T	W	T	F		M	T	W	T	F
Sept.					01	Oct.	02	03	04	05	06	Nov.			01	02	03	Dec.					01
	04	05	06	07	08		09	10	11	12	13		06	07	08	09	10		04	05	06	07	08
	11	12	13	14	15		16	17	18	19	20		13	14	15	16	17		11	12			
	18	19	20	21	22		23	24	25	26	27		20	21	22	23	24						
	25	26	27	28	29		30	31					27	28	29	30							

CLASSES BEGIN	CLASSES END	ORIENTATION DAYS	STUDENT TEACHING
September 11th	November 10th	November 13th & 14th	November 15th - December 12th

One-Year BEd/4th Year Concurrent Winter Student Teaching Schedule

	M	T	W	T	F		M	T	W	T	F		M	T	W	T	F		M	T	W	T	F
Jan.		02	03	04	05	Feb.				01	02	Mar.					01	Apr.	01	02	03	04	05
	08	09	10	11	12		05	06	07	08	09		04	05	06	07	08		08	09	10	11	12
	15	16	17	18	19		12	13	14	15	16		11	12	13	14	15		15	16	17	18	19
	22	23	24	25	26		19	20	21	22	23		18	19	20	21	22						
	29	30	31				26	27	28	29			25	26	27	28	29						

CLASSES BEGIN	CLASSES END	STUDY WEEK	STUDENT TEACHING
January 02nd	March 08th	March 11th-March 15th	March 18th - April 19th

* * * \

APPENDIX B

Permission letter

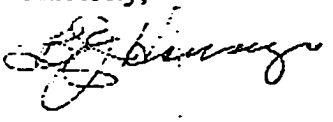
Faculty of Education, U.B.C.
July7, 1995.

To: Mr. Xiaobin (Jim) Li
Faculty of Education
Lakehead University
Thunder Bay,Ontario, P7B 5E1

Dear Mr. Li,

By all means, use my PREP Scale. You will find the best article on the scale in the Canadian Journal of Education, 15 (1), published in 1990. Best wishes for success in your program.

Sincerely,



APPENDIX C

Cover letter

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION FORM

You are being requested to participate in a survey being conducted by Mr. Xiaobin Li, a graduate student, of Lakehead University's Faculty of Education.

Participation in this study is voluntary.

The purpose of this survey is to assess your feelings of preparedness to teach at this time during the program.

In order to measure changes your name and student number are needed. Please give your name and student number in the spaces provided below.

---------- ----------

Name Student number

Your name will not be identified with the completed survey.

All information will be kept confidential.

Your grade in this course/program will not be affected in any way.

Your participation in this survey is greatly appreciated.

If you do not wish to participate in this study please return the survey to your instructor.

Your completion of the items in this survey signifies your choice to participate.

Thank you very much.

Mr. Xiaobin Li
Graduate Student
Faculty of Education
Lakehead University

APPENDIX D

Student Teachers' Feelings of Preparedness for Teaching

Student Teachers' Feelings of Preparedness for Teaching

Please read and respond to each item. Indicate with an "X" the response on the seven-point scale (7 - Almost Completely Prepared, to 1 - Almost Completely Unprepared) which most closely fits your feelings about how prepared you feel to handle the task described in each item.

How prepared do you feel to ...	Almost completely prepared 7	6	5	4	3	2	Almost completely unprepared 1
1. identify lesson objectives.							
2. state lesson objectives clearly.							
3. plan for the attainment of lesson objectives.							
4. design activities based on a collection of materials.							
5. estimate the time required for activities.							
6. develop alternative activities to achieve the same objective.							
7. evaluate the appropriateness of materials according to curriculum guidelines.							
8. evaluate the appropriateness of materials according to students' abilities.							
9. evaluate the appropriateness of controversial materials.							
10. draw subject matter for teaching from my own knowledge.							
11. enrich instruction with additional content.							
12. select an appropriate method for teaching.							
13. relate past learnings to a new lesson.							
14. integrate learnings from two or more subject areas.							
15. group students for instruction.							

How prepared do you feel at this point in time to ...	Almost completely prepared 7	6	5	4	3	2	Almost completely unprepared 1
16. develop stimulating practice exercises.							
17. design review activities.							
18. focus students' attention prior to beginning a lesson.							
19. provide students with a rationale for learning activities.							
20. communicate my expectations for student learning.							
21. motivate a class to achieve my expectations for learning.							
22. develop appropriate means for holding students accountable for school work.							
23. adapt instruction to a particular class.							
24. give clear explanations to students.							
25. give clear directions to students.							
26. maintain lesson momentum.							
27. give appropriate feedback regarding achievement.							
28. summarize a lesson.							
29. ask questions at various levels of intellectual difficulty.							
30. reword questions to enhance clarity.							
31. redirect questions to involve more students.							
32. estimate the appropriate wait time between asking questions and choosing respondents.							
33. design appropriate assessment procedures.							
34. keep daily individual student achievement records.							
35. determine student grades.							

How prepared do you feel at this point in time to ...	Almost completely prepared 7	6	5	4	3	2	Almost completely unprepared 1
36. prepare the physical classroom setting for instruction.							
37. monitor the entire class while working with only part of it.							
38. manage a class according to students' maturity levels.							
39. enforce classroom rules.							
40. give appropriate feedback on student behavior							
41. implement routines to minimize time loss.							
42. make smooth transitions between activities.							
43. correct student misbehavior unobtrusively.							
44. understand the underlying causes of student behavior problems.							
45. handle most discipline problems in the classroom.							
46. promote student self-discipline.							
47. develop ways of improving my own teaching.							
48. establish positive rapport with students.							
49. maintain good staff relationship.							
50. relate effectively to parents.							

If you wish to, please make additional comments.

APPENDIX E

Haines Inventory

PART II

In **PART II** each item consists of two parts. The first part defines a behaviour and provides examples of the behaviour. The second part posses a question and provides a five-point scale on which you are asked to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the question by circling the appropriate number.

#1.

Definition:

"Excessive and inappropriate talking" is typified by:

"Talking during teacher's presentation,"
"Constant talking after being asked to stop,"
"Talking loudly when associate teacher is out of the room."

Question:

"Excessive and inappropriate talking" was a serious problem during my student teaching experience.
(Circle the appropriate number below.)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

#2.

Definition:

"Racial harassment" is typified by:

"Refusing to work with another because of race."
"Calling another student a derogatory racial name."

Question:

"Racial harassment" was a serious problem during my student teaching experience.
(Circle the appropriate number below.)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

#3.

Definition:

"Disruptive, disobedient, and uncooperative behaviour" is typified by:

"Passing notes in class,"
"Constantly interrupting me when I try to teach,"
"Acting out when my back is turned."

Question:

"Disruptive, disobedient, and uncooperative behaviour" was a serious problem during my teaching experience.
(Circle the appropriate number below.)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

#4.

Definition:

The "Class clown" is typified by:

"Cutting up in class but not maliciously."

Question:

The "Class Clown" was a serious problem during my student teaching experience.
(Circle the appropriate number below.)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

#5.

Definition:

"Instructional procedures difficulties" are typified by:

"Getting them quiet so I can teach,"
"Stopping them from asking irrelevant questions,"
"Getting them to pay attention for the whole class period,"
"Cheating on computer programs/tests/class work."

Question:

"Instructional procedures difficulties" were a serious problem during my student teaching experience.
(Circle the appropriate number below.)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

#6.

Definition:

"Insolence, rudeness, and smart-talk" is typified by:

"Sarcastic and belligerent comments,"
"Backtalking to me,"
"Making rude remarks,"
"Mimicking me and calling me by my first name."

Question:

"Insolence, rudeness, smart-talk" was a serious problem during my student teaching.
(Circle the appropriate number below.)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

#7.

Definition:

"Not doing classwork" is typified by:

"Refusing to take notes,"
"Not finishing work on time,"
"Won't do work unless I stand beside him."

Question:
"Not doing classwork" was a serious problem during my student teaching.
(Circle the appropriate number below.)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

#8.

Definition:

"Sexual harassment as a student teacher" is typified by:

"Flirting,"
"Making lewd comments,"
"Make suggestive gestures."

Question:
"Sexual harassment as a student teacher" was a serious problem during my student teaching.
(Circle the appropriate number below.)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

#9.

Definition:

"Breaking rules" is typified by:

"Smoking,"
"Chewing gum in class,"
"Dancing in the halls,"
"Running in the building."

Question:
"Breaking rules" was a serious problem during my student teaching.
(Circle the appropriate number below.)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

#10.

Definition:

"Stealing" is typified by:

"Items disappearing in from the classroom,"
"A student steals lunch money."

Question:

"Stealing" was a serious problem during my student teaching.
(Circle the appropriate number below.)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

#11.

Definition:

"Aggressive behaviour" is typified by:

"Students continually hitting each other,"
"Picking at each other,"
"Having temper tantrums."

Question:

"Aggressive behaviour" was a serious problem during my student teaching.
(Circle the appropriate number below.)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

#12.

Definition:

"Abusive language" is typified by:

"Cursing,"
"Using four-letter words."

Question:

"Abusive language" was a serious problem during my student teaching.
(Circle the appropriate number.)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

#13.

Definition:

"Inattentiveness" is typified by:

"Daydreaming,"
"Asking for help after directions are given,"
"Acting bored."

Question:

"Inattentiveness" was a serious problem during my student teaching.
(Circle the appropriate number.)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

#14.

Definition:

"Lack of motivation" is typified by:

"Lacking interest in classwork."
"Marking time."

Question:

"Lack of motivation" was a serious problem during my student teaching.
(Circle the appropriate number.)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

#15.

Definition:

"Not being prepared" is typified by:

"Not bringing books and supplies to class,"
"Not doing homework."

Question:

"Not being prepared" was a serious problem during my student teaching.
(Circle the appropriate number.)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

#16.

Definition:

"Problems with parents" is typified by:

"Negative and hostile attitudes of parents,"
"Parents' lack of concern,"
"Parents not giving child enough attention,"
"Parents wanting 'real' teacher not student teacher to teacher class."

Question:

"Problems with parents" was a serious problem during my student teaching.
(Circle the appropriate number.)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

#17.

Definition:

"Not staying in seat" is typified by:

"Wandering around the room,"
"Won't sit in assigned seats,"
"Cannot sit still."

Question:

"Not staying in seat" was a serious problem during my student teaching.
(Circle the appropriate number.)

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

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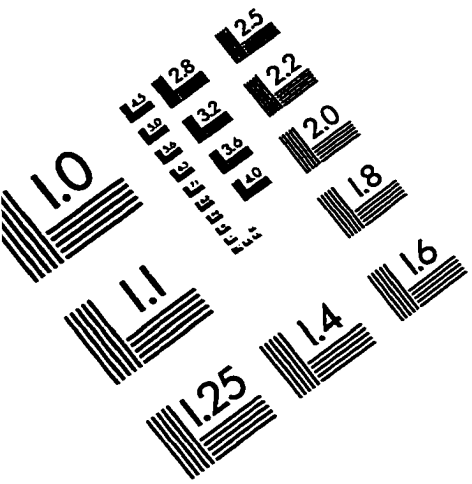

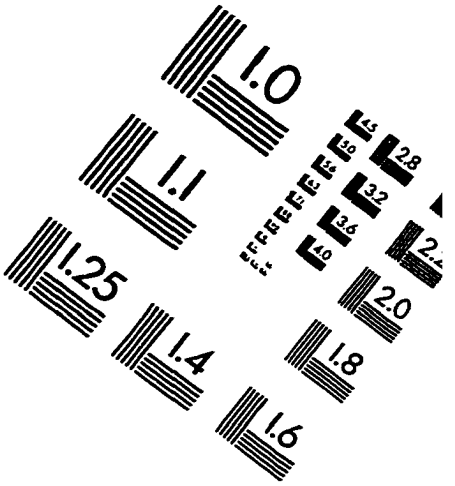

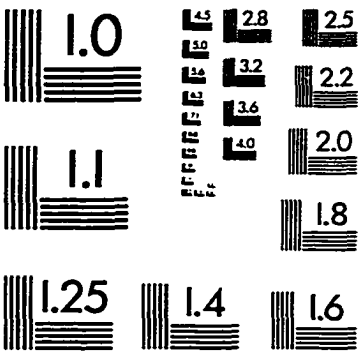

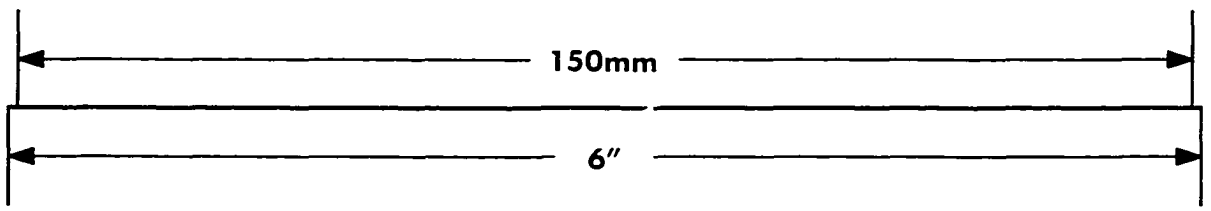

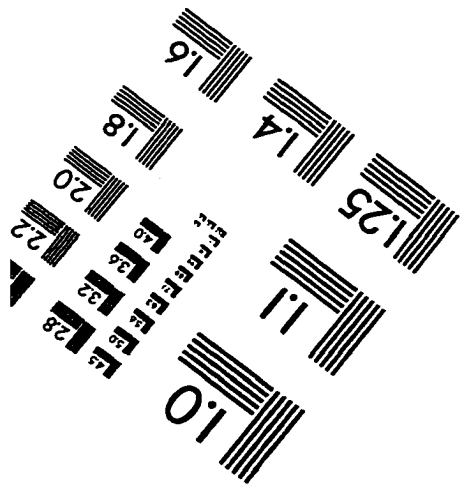

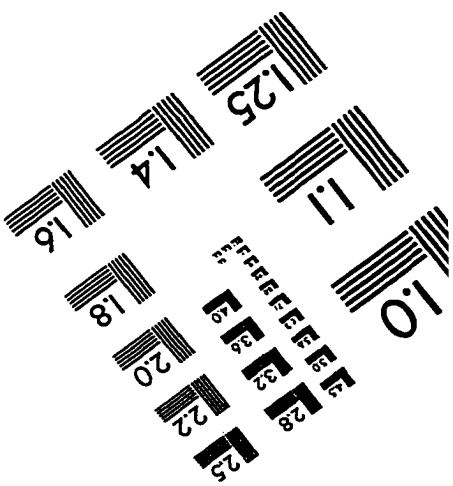

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